NEA

# Research Bulletin


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# America on the Move

***32 million persons change residence every year***

THE EXTENT to which people from all walks of life have decided that "the grass looks greener elsewhere" cannot help but have a considerable impact on public schools and communities throughout the nation. By studying recent trends in population mobility, educators and community leaders alike will find much of value in planning local programs.

From April 1956 to April 1957, *approximately 1 in 5 Americans—or 32 million—changed their place of residence! Over 5 million* moved to a new state. The figures for the past 10 years show a consistent mobility rate for the population. Reports from the U. S. Bureau of the Census indicate that since 1947, around 20 percent of the population annually either move somewhere else in the same county, move to another county within the same state, or take up residence in a new state.

Decided differences appear, however, in the relative mobility of various segments of the nation. For the 1956-57 period, the farm population was more stable than either the rural nonfarm or urban residents. Approximately 50 percent greater mobility was evidenced by the latter groups. The first illustration gives a breakdown of mobility by type of residence for the total civilian population.

## YOUTH ON THE MOVE

It is not surprising to find that the youth of the nation are considerably more likely to pick up stakes than their elders. For the 1956-57 period, those in their twenties moved (over 7¾ million of them) at a 36-percent rate—*or more than 1 in* 3—compared with 1 in 5 for the nation as a whole. About 7 percent of this group 20-29 years of age moved into another state.

For the school- and preschool-age population (1-17 years), as can be seen from the second illustration, the younger they are, the more likely it is that their families will move.

For *school-age children* (5-17 years), the mobility rate is slightly less than the rate for the general population. This probably reflects, to some extent, parents' reluctance to move once their children enter school.

From 1956 to 1957, however, more than 7 million school-age children

### 1 ONE-THIRD OF THE MOVERS CROSS COUNTY LINES

Mobility of civilian population over 1 year old by type of residence, April 1956 to April 1957

| Type of residence April 1957 | Within county | Inter-county | Inter-state | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | Number | Percent |
| Urban | 13.7% | 2.4% | 3.3% | 19,763,000 | 19.4% |
| Rural nonfarm | 13.7 | 4.9 | 3.2 | 9,321,000 | 21.8 |
| Rural farm | 9.1 | 3.2 | 1.6 | 2,746,000 | 13.9 |
| Total who moved | | | | | |
| Number | 21,566,000 | 5,192,000 | 5,076,000 | 31,834,000 | |
| Percent | 13.1% | 3.2% | 3.1% | | 19.4% |

Based on: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. "Mobility of the Population of the United States, April 1956 to 1957." Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 82. Washington, D.C.: the Bureau, July 21, 1958. Table 2, p. 9.

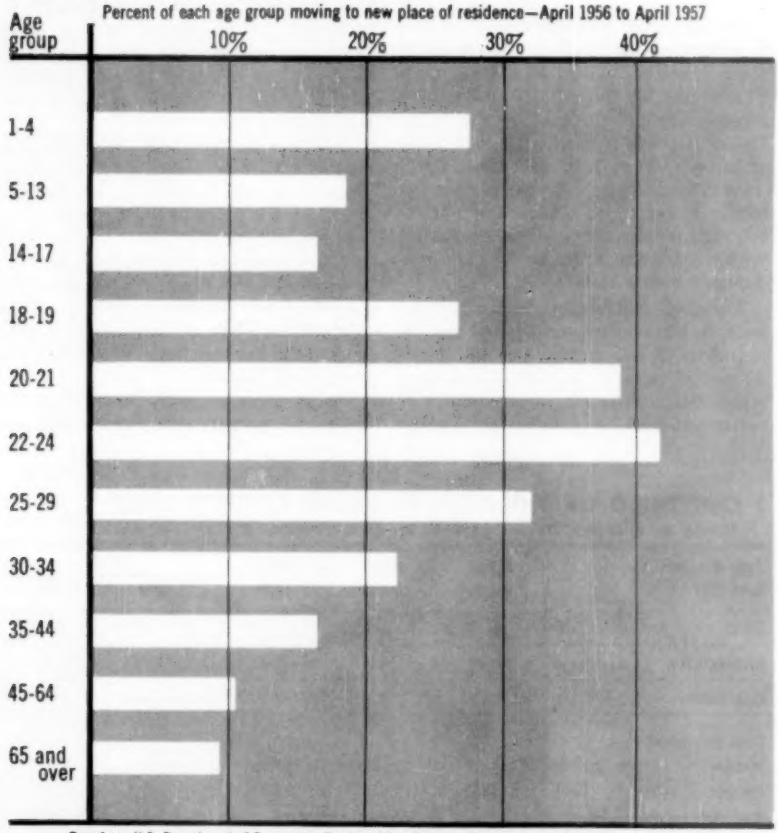
changed their place of residence. A little over 1 million crossed state lines. This is shown in the third illustration.

No adequate assessment can be made of the educational gain or loss that results from shifts in residence by these millions of school children. A change of school, even when made at the beginning of a school year, usually requires a personal adjustment for the child. Changes during the school year, of which there are many, create serious problems for teacher and pupil alike.

## DIFFERENCES AMONG THE STATES

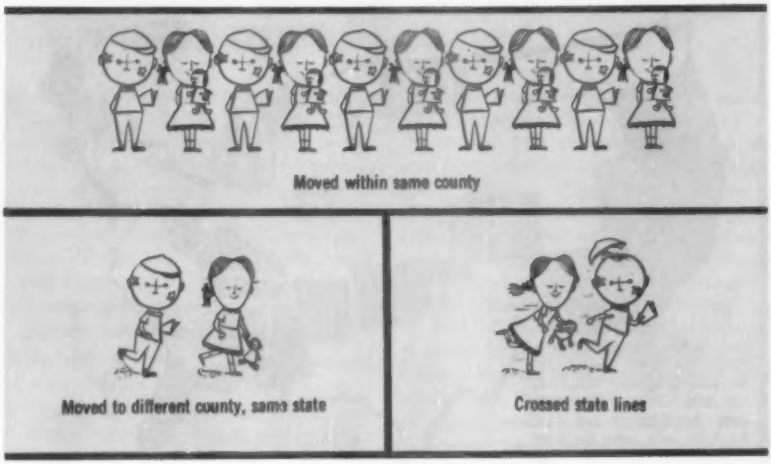
Another significant aspect of mobility, from the standpoint of school boards and educators, is state-by-state net gain or loss from the continued movement of the population. Such considerations as school budgets, new classroom construction, and pupil-teacher ratios are directly affected by the state's population increase or decrease, of which mobility (or more properly migration) plays an important part.

## 2 MOBILITY VARIES WITH AGE




Based on: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. "Mobility of the Population of the United States, April 1956 to 1957." Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 82. Washington, D.C.: the Bureau, July 21, 1958, Table 3, p. 10.

## 3 MOBILITY OF SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION (5-17 YEARS), APRIL 1956 TO APRIL 1957*




*Each figure represents approximately 500,000 school-age children.

The net population change in a particular state from one year to the next reflects the operation of three factors: births, deaths, and migration. Only the migration index deals with growth from other than natural causes.

The map shows for 1950-56 the 10 states having the greatest gains from migration and the 10 states having the greatest losses from migration. These gains and losses are given as percents based on the 1950 population.

It is interesting to note that of the 10 states showing the largest gains from migration, five are west of the Rocky Mountains; of the 10 states showing the greatest losses from migration, six are in the South.

### DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE RACES

During the 1956-57 period, nonwhites were slightly more mobile than the white population. Among the former, 22.2 percent changed residence compared with 19.0 percent of the whites. However, nonwhites generally moved a shorter distance—about 80 percent moved within the county. Most of the long-distance movement of nonwhites represented a shift from Southern rural areas to Northern and Western cities.

### TEACHER MOBILITY

Because of the continued problem of filling classroom teacher vacancies in all parts of the nation, one would suspect much migration among teachers. But available evidence is inconclusive.

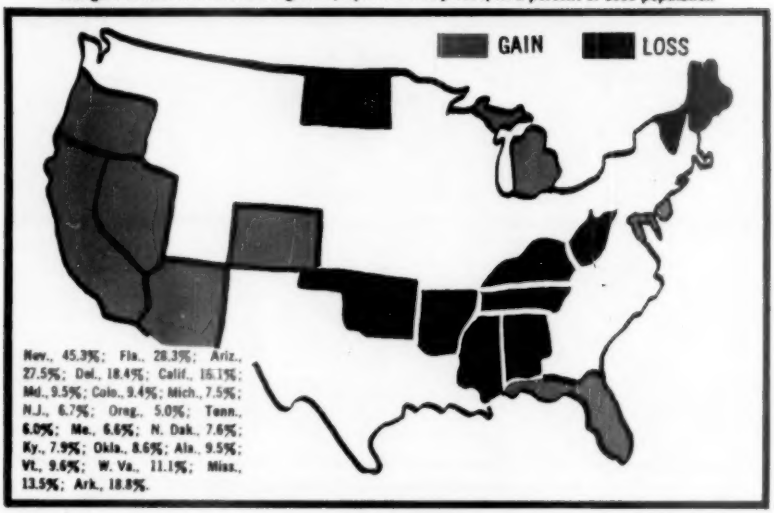
The NEA Research Division has information on teacher mobility as measured by the number of school systems in which teachers have worked. Of teachers reporting in April 1956, 40 percent had taught in at least three different school systems.[1] However, very little is known about the interstate movement of teachers. The only recent figures[2]

[1]National Education Association, Research Division. "The Status of the American Public-School Teacher." *Research Bulletin* 35: 47; February 1957.

[2]From unpublished statistics of NEA Research Division; data reported by a random sample of 510 school superintendents representing approximately 205,000 classroom teachers.

## 4 STATES MOST AFFECTED BY MOBILITY

**Net gain or loss from civilian migration, April 1950-July 1956, as a percent of 1950 population**


GAIN
LOSS
Nev., 45.3%; Fla., 28.3%; Ariz., 27.5%; Del., 18.4%; Calif., 16.1%; Md., 9.5%; Colo., 9.4%; Mich., 7.5%; N.J., 6.7%; Oreg., 5.0%; Tenn., 6.0%; Me., 6.6%; N. Dak., 7.6%; Ky., 7.9%; Okla., 8.6%; Ala., 9.5%; Vt., 9.6%; W. Va., 11.1%; Miss., 13.5%; Ark., 18.8%.

Based on: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. "Estimates of the Population of States: July 1, 1950 to 1956." Series P-25, No. 165. Washington, D. C.: the Bureau, November 4, 1957. Tables 3 and 5, p. 7 and 9.

available were incidental to another study. Surprisingly, it appears that for 1957 at least, teachers moved across state lines at a lower rate than the general population. Only 2.8 percent[2] of the new teachers had come from another state whereas 3.1 percent of the general population moved into a new state during this period. The picture, however, is reversed when one compares the 5.5 percent of rural teachers who had come from another state with the 2.7 percent of all rural residents who had crossed state lines. In urban communities 2.5 percent of the teachers had come from another state, whereas 3.3 percent of the general population had.

### SUMMARY

Mobility of the population apparently will continue as an important national phenomenon in the years ahead. Any radical economic or social changes would have an effect on both the pattern and the amount of relocation. However, there has been a surprising consistency in both the over-all mobility rate and the mobility by place of residence. The former has been around 20 percent since 1947.

A larger percent of preschool-age children move each year than children of school age. The latter group approximates the national average. The financial and social implications of mobility remain as factors worthy of the serious consideration of school boards, administrators, and classroom teachers.

For details see: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Mobility of the Population of the United States, April 1956 to 1957.* Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 82. Washington, D. C.: the Bureau, July 21, 1958. 17 p.

[2]This figure does not include those teachers who may have changed state residence for purposes other than obtaining a teaching position.

# Elementary-School Principals

***A look at the status of supervising principals in urban areas with trends from 1928 and 1948***

THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL principal may look with pride at the gains made in the past three decades in defining and fulfilling his role of educational leadership. In the third study of the elementary-school principalship in 30 years, the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, finds these signs of progress:

- Co-operative techniques of leadership are more prevalent.
- Regard for the elementary-school principalship has increased.
- The level of educational preparation of the elementary-school principal has risen.

Although there are many other areas of gains, the need for further advancement in some of these is still urgent:

- Clerical help, office space, and equipment are still inadequate.
- Salary scales are not yet commensurate with responsibilities.
- A more penetrating and judicious type of community contact is needed.
- There are some real inadequacies in specific preparation for the position.

These conclusions are based on data obtained by a questionnaire sent in April 1957 to a random sample of elementary-school principals in urban school districts of 2500 population and over. The questionnaire was constructed and the results interpreted by the NEA Research Division. (Complete results were published in the 1958 Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA.)

In a study of this type the researcher is first faced with the baffling problem of defining the major areas he wishes to study. Classification is difficult in view of the complexity of the position; however, there seem to be two main categories into which the characteristics of the elementary-school principalship fall. The first is function. The functions of the elementary-school principal can be subdivided into the supervision of instruction, administration, and work with the community. The second category is the personal characteristics of the principal himself; for example, his education and experience. This article follows this somewhat arbitrary classification.

The complete report includes an analysis of the principalship by type of position (supervising or teaching) and by sex. For supervising principals, the size of city, the region, and the amount of education are also considered. From this array the following paragraphs report high lights for *supervising* principals only.

Supervising principals are those who spend *half time or more* in the supervision and administration of their schools. Wherever data are available, the supervising principal's status in 1958 is compared with that in 1948 and 1928. (The year given is the year of the report in each instance. The data reported in 1958 represent the 1956-57 school year; in 1948, the year 1946-47; and in 1928, 1926-27.) The numbers of supervising principals participating in the surveys were 2008 in the 1958 survey, 1413 in the 1948 survey, and 617 in the 1928 survey.

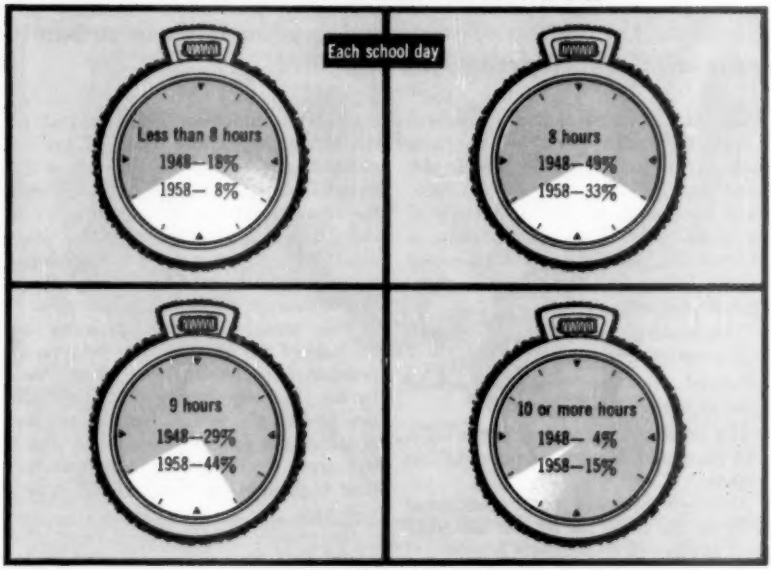
## ALLOCATION OF TIME

Relationships among the major functions of the principalship are illustrated in part by the amount of time that the supervising principal devotes to each function.

Within the average work week only small shifts have taken place in the

For details see: Department of Elementary School Principals. *The Elementary School Principalship — A Research Study.* Thirty-Seventh Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the department, National Education Association, September 1958. 259 p. $3.50.

## 1 SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS WORK LONG HOURS




relationship of amounts of time devoted to the major functions of the principalship. At present the supervising principal devotes 30 percent of his time to administration, 35 percent to supervision, 14 percent to clerical work, 3 percent to regular classroom teaching, and 18 percent to public relations, working with community groups, and working with parents. Since 1928 small gains have been made in reducing the relative amount of time given to clerical work. In 1928, 18 percent of the supervising principal's time was given to it, and in 1948, 15 percent. It also appears that supervising principals are devoting relatively more time to working with the community.

The trend toward a more professional allocation of time has been accompanied by an increase in the total amount of time the elementary-school principal spends in school in an average day. In the 1928 and 1948 surveys, the median time at school for supervising principals was 8.7 hours daily, but in 1958, it was 9.2 hours.

Supervising principals, when polled on how they would like ideally to allocate their time, indicated that they would prefer to give more time to supervision. In such a redistribution most of the added time for supervision would be drawn from time for clerical work.

### SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

The real significance of Illustrations 1, 2, and 3 is not that *time* in itself is important, but that, given the choice, supervising principals aspire to activities more directly connected with the improvement of instruction, and that although shifts in time may be relatively small, they are possible.

Illustration 3 leaves no doubt about the importance that the supervising principals attach to supervision. Other questions then arise: Does the supervising principal have responsibility for supervision in his school? Do his tech-

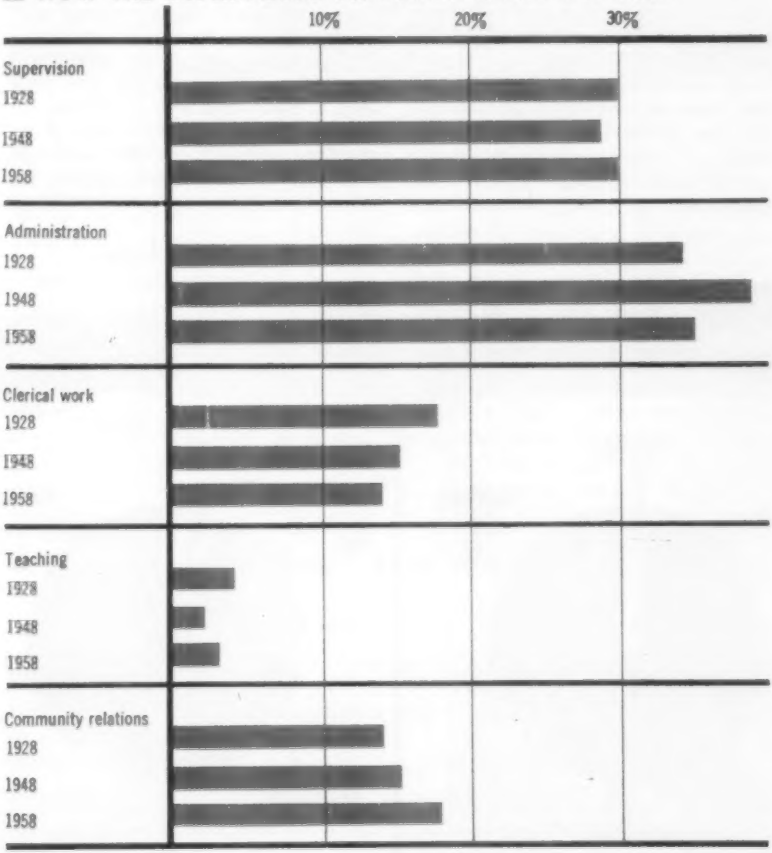
niques of supervision tend toward the autocratic or the co-operative?

While there may have been considerable bypassing of the supervising principals in years gone by, in most schools today they are responsible for supervision. Supervising principals responded as follows to a question on this topic: 76 percent said that they are responsible and have some assistance from a supervisor of instruction; 20 percent, that they are responsible and have no assistance; 3 percent, that they work closely with a supervisor assigned full time to the school; and 1 percent, that they are bypassed by supervision from the central office.

Today's supervising principal employs many co-operative techniques of supervision. The evidence here comes from his responses to questions on developing the curriculum, selecting instructional materials, and determining pupil placement.

In the area of curriculum development, the supervising principals see their role as follows: 62 percent responded that classroom teachers, prin-

**2 HOW THE SUPERVISING PRINCIPAL SPENT HIS TIME**



cipals, and supervisors develop the curriculum co-operatively for the school system, with adaptation to individual schools up to the principal and teachers; 29 percent, that they follow closely the school system program and have some influence on its development; 6 percent, that they carry out prescriptions of state law and local board policies; and 3 percent, that they follow closely the school system program without trying to influence its development.

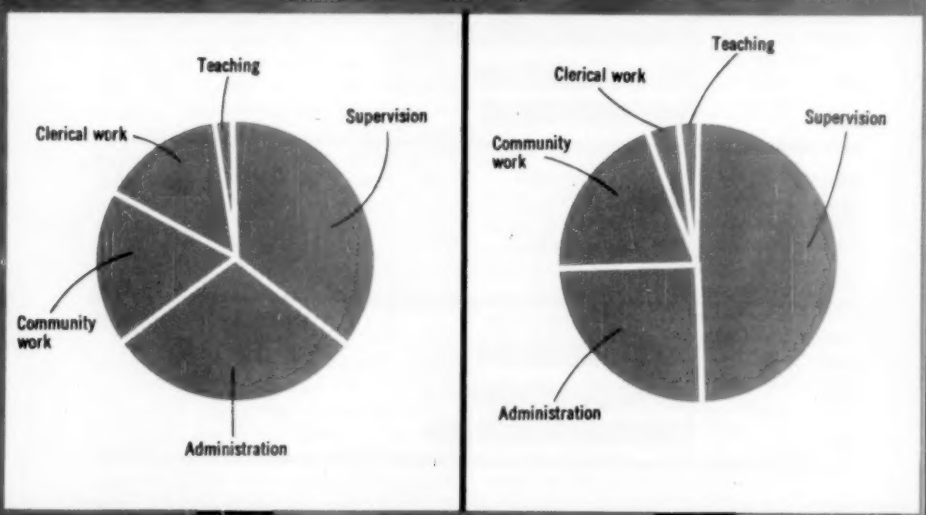
In the area of selecting instructional materials, supervising principals see their role as follows: 59 percent reported that the faculty, working together, makes requests for materials in terms of the school program; 22 percent, that they or their representatives work with a school system committee; 10 percent, that they use materials selected by the central office; and 9 percent, that they have no standard list of materials, but that teachers indicate what they need.

In the area of pupil placement, supervising principals see their role as follows: 76 percent said that within the framework of general school system policies, the teacher works with parents, child, and principal on placing each child; 11 percent, that the teacher decides on failure or promotion with help from the principal on difficult cases; 10 percent, that children are placed according to policies and standards developed by the faculty as a whole; and 3 percent, that children are placed and promoted in accordance with required, system-wide, uniform policies. The high percent of supervising principals using the co-operative techniques is an indication of gain in professional status of the principal.

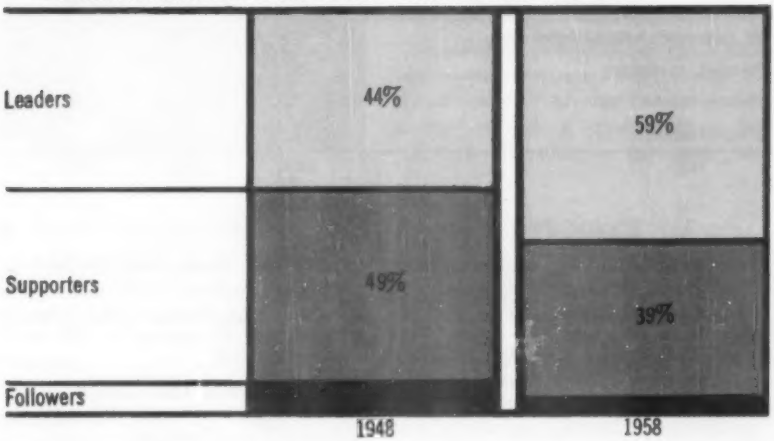
Greater security in his leadership role is also reflected in the supervising principal's willingness to try out new ideas. Eighty-one percent of the supervising principals polled indicated that they liked to experiment with new ideas.

In this area of the supervision of instruction, comparisons with results in 1948 and 1928 were not possible because it was necessary to add questions

## 3 SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS' ACTUAL AND DESIRED ALLOCATION OF TIME



## 4 WHAT THE PRINCIPALS BELIEVED THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION EXPECTED PRINCIPALS TO BE




and change the wording of questions in the current survey to cover more adequately the current viewpoints on this function.

### ADMINISTRATION

Other evidence of the supervising principal's stature today comes from the principal's understanding of the central administration's view of his place in the school system. In 1958, 59 percent of the supervising principals saw themselves regarded as leaders, rather than supporters or followers; in 1948, only 44 percent did so.

Budgeting is one area of administration in which this leadership is well demonstrated. Illustration 5 indicates a trend in the direction of more participation by the supervising principal. In 1948, 52 percent responded that they had nothing much to do with the budget; only 22 percent responded similarly in 1958.

In choosing school staff, however, the trend has been to allow the principal less participation. From 1948 to 1958, the proportion of principals having no say in employing teachers doubled. In

## 5 SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS HAVE MORE SAY IN BUDGETING

| Role of principal | 1948 | 1958 |
|---|---|---|
| Has nothing much to do with the budget | 52% | 22% |
| Reports general needs of the school, but decisions are central | 29 | 47 |
| Sum of money is budgeted; teachers and principal determine how it is spent | 0 | 19 |
| Principal and teachers prepare budget proposals based upon planned program | 19 | 12 |
| Total | 100% | 100% |

## 6 FEWER SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS SELECT THEIR TEACHERS

| Staffing | 1928 | 1948 | 1958 |
|---|---|---|---|
| All assignments made by central office | 26% | 20% | 40% |
| Principal has some say | 50 | 46 | 39 |
| Principal has much say | 22 | 27 | 20 |
| Principal employs | 2 | 7 | 1 |
| Total | 100% | 100% | 100% |

other words, 4 in 10 principals reported in 1958 that all assignments were made by the central office, whereas in 1948 only 2 in 10 made this report. This change in practice may not be a reflection of change in attitude of the central administration, but rather that the shortage of teachers and the growth of school systems may require more centralization in this area of administration. It is also recognized that the supervising principal needs many types of central staff services if he is to be effective in his own school.

### SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

Over the years the organization of the school in which the supervising principal is chief administrator has changed. The growth and development of the junior high school has made the elementary school that ends with the sixth grade more common. In the 1928 survey, 42 percent of the schools under supervising principals were organized as K-6, or grade 1-6 schools. By 1948, the percent had increased to 51, and by 1958 it had increased to 79 percent. The schools having kindergartens have increased from 55 percent in 1928 to 67 percent in 1958.

### SCHOOL RESOURCES

Both special personnel and adequate equipment are valuable resources in helping the supervising principal do his work. Illustration 8 shows the wide variety and extent of resource personnel available to elementary schools today.

While there is much room for progress, special resource personnel are now somewhat more available to the supervising principal than they were in 1948. For example, in 1948, 84 percent of the supervising principals had the services of a school nurse either full or part time, and in 1958 the percent was 93. For school librarians, the respective percents were 35 and 41.

Although conditions are improving, inadequate clerical help continues to be a problem that vexes the supervising

## 7 MOST ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS END WITH GRADE 6

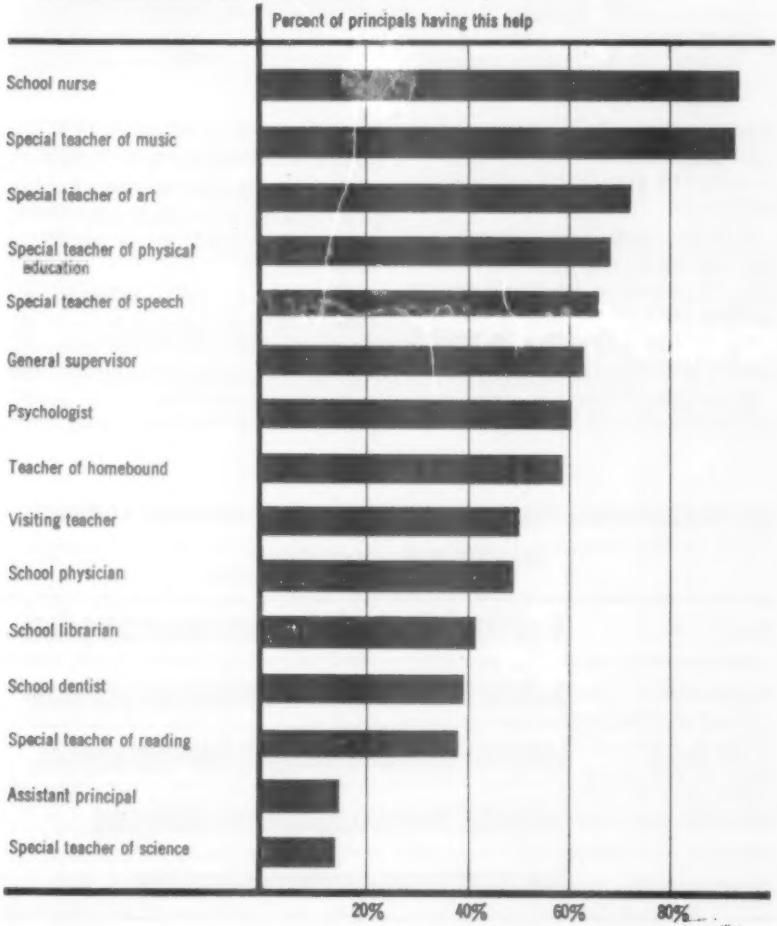
| Grades | 1928 | 1958 |
|---|---|---|
| Through grade 6 | 42% | 79% |
| Through grade 7 | 12 | 0 |
| Through grade 8 | 33 | 20 |
| Other combinations | 13 | 1 |
| Total | 100% | 100% |

principal. Gains can be indicated by the percent of those who have the services of one full-time secretary. In 1928, 29 percent of the supervising principals had at least one full-time secretary; in 1948 the percent had increased to 47, and in 1958 it was 58. Twenty-three percent of the supervising principals, however, still have no secretarial help, and 19 percent have only part-time service.

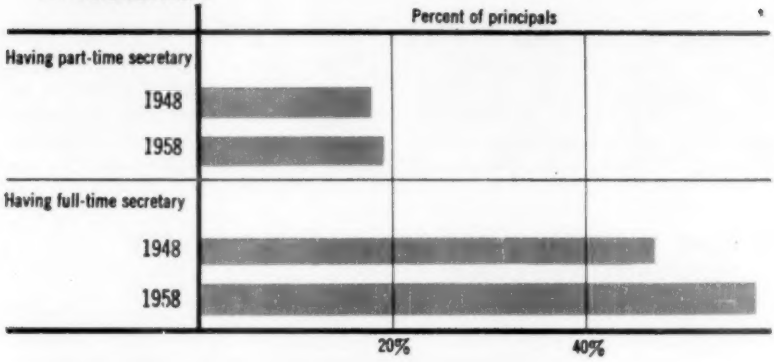
## WORKING WITH THE COMMUNITY

Supervising principals recognize that one of the best ways for parents to obtain accurate information about elementary schools is directly from the principal. Accordingly, principals are

### 8 SOME SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS HAVE RESOURCE PERSONNEL AVAILABLE



## 9 MORE SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS NOW HAVE A SECRETARY




devoting more and more time in school and out of school to public relations and working with parents and with community groups.

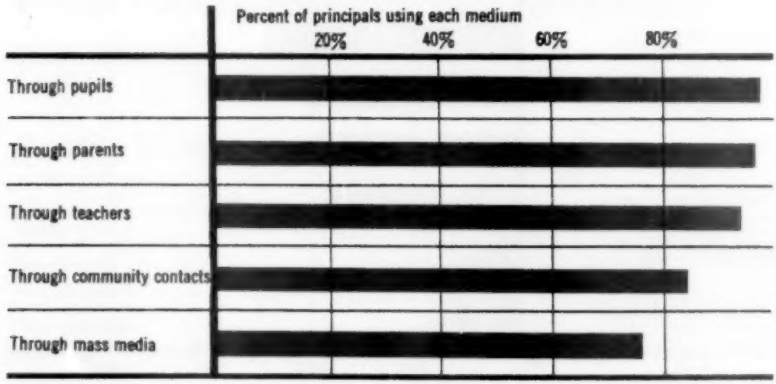
Data previously presented indicated that the supervising principal in 1958 gave 18 percent of his school time to working with the public, a small increase from 15 percent in 1948, and 14 percent in 1928.

Out-of-school time for participation in community organizations was 2.0 hours per week (median) in 1928, 3.1 hours in 1948, and 3.6 hours in 1958.

The percents of supervising principals now using certain mediums for enlisting community support are indicated in Illustration 10.

One of the significant findings of the 1958 survey is that this area of the supervising principal's major functions appears to be the most neglected in his professional preparation for the principalship through university study.

## 10 SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS BUILD PUBLIC UNDERSTANDING



## THE PRINCIPAL HIMSELF

Various personal characteristics of principals were reported—the proportion of men and women, age, experience, education, and salary.

*Men and Women*

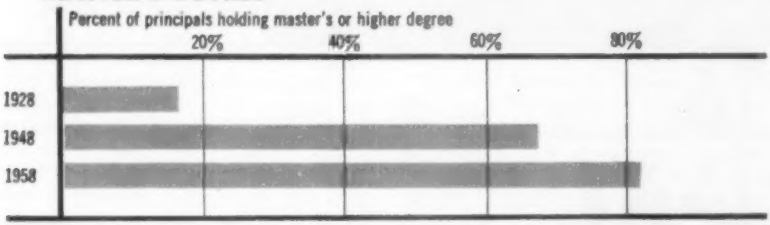
A shift in the relative distribution of men and women in the elementary-school principalship has appeared over the past 30 years. This is not a shift toward more equal distribution, but toward a higher percent of men. The 1928 survey showed that 45 percent of the supervising principals were men; in 1948 the proportion had increased to 59 percent; and in 1958 to 62 percent.

*Age and Experience*

The median age of supervising principals has remained fairly constant. In 1948 it was 46.5 years and in 1958 it is 47.6 years. In 1958 the median age for men was 43.7 years; for women, 52.1 years.

Over the years there has been no significant change in the amount of experience of supervising principals. On total professional experience, the median in 1928 was 23.8 years; in 1948, 24.0 years; and in 1958, 23.4 years. The median years of total experience as principal, in 1928 was 10.1 years; in 1948, 10.5 years; and in 1958, 9.1 years.

**11 MOST SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS HOLD A MASTER'S DEGREE**




*Education*

Although the age and experience of the typical elementary-school principal has not changed over the years, his educational background has. The profession has reason to congratulate itself on the raising of educational standards over the 30-year period.

Supervising principals without a degree are almost nonexistent today, whereas they constituted 54 percent of the supervising principals corps in 1928. The percent of those with only a bachelor's degree has gone down from 30 in 1928 to 16 in 1958. Those holding the master's or higher degree have gone from 16 percent in 1928 to 82 percent in 1958.

*Salary*

Despite rapidly increasing qualifications and heavier responsibilities, supervising principals share fully in the economic handicap of the entire teaching profession. In fact, since 1928 the relative economic status of elementary-school principals, as compared with classroom teachers, has dropped, according to the various salary studies made by the Research Division.

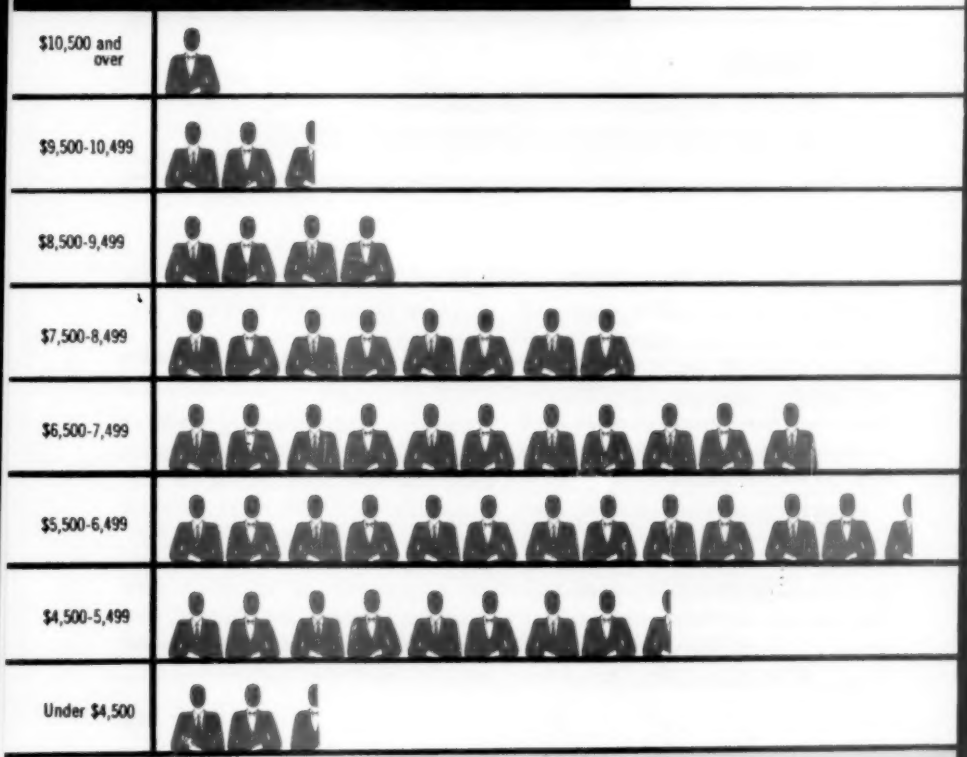
The distribution of 1956-57 salaries of supervising principals is shown in Illustration 12.

### THE TYPICAL SUPERVISING PRINCIPAL, 1958

The preceding paragraphs have presented in broad overview 30 years of progress in the supervisory principalship. In summary, a 1958 supervising principal could be described as follows:

- He is considered a leader by the central school administration.
- He is principal of an elementary school that ends at the sixth grade and has an enrollment of 536 pupils.
- He spends 35 percent of his school time on supervision but would like to spend 49 percent of his time on supervision.
- He spends 9.2 hours in school each day.
- He spends 3.6 hours a week on lay organizations.
- He has one full-time secretary and at least the minimum essentials of office equipment.
- He is 48 years old.
- He has had 23.4 years of total professional experience, 9.1 years of which have been in the principalship.
- He has a master's degree.

**12 SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS RECEIVED THESE SALARIES IN 1956-57***




*Each figure represents 2 percent of the principals.

# State School Legislation

***A major activity of state education associations is the study, preparation, and support of legislation for the improvement of education***

AS EACH state education association prepares for a legislative session, its leaders must decide what legislation the association will seek and support.

These leaders must be able to evaluate present laws, and often they must study laws of other states when they think similar laws would be of value in their own states. Good educational legislation does not "just happen." It is the result of hard work by well-informed, interested individuals.

## RESEARCH AND WORK NEEDED

More is necessary to passing legislation than a "good cause." A good cause is needed, but so is good research to support it and hard work to make it into law. State education associations, therefore, set certain legislative goals and work to achieve them. These goals are carefully chosen and are important. There are many "good causes," legislatively speaking, for which a state education association could work. But from the many, a few must be chosen for concentrated work in order that the effort will not be dissipated.

## "HIGH SPOTS"

Since the early 1930's the NEA Research Division has published *High Spots in State School Legislation* annually. Each issue contains brief reviews of important legislation passed in the several states. In 1954, the Research Division decided that *High Spots* would be of more value if the *goals* of the state associations were included as well as the legislative enactments. Each state association was asked to report its major legislative achievement and also its major legislative defeat. The state associations' legislative goals during the period 1954 through 1958 included nearly every aspect of educational legislation. Table 1 lists the types of legislation most often mentioned by state associations reporting major achievements and defeats. In columns 2 and 3 are the numbers of times each type of legislation was reported as an achievement or as a defeat by state associations in the period 1954 through 1958.

## SUPPORT OR OPPOSITION?

State education associations oppose detrimental educational legislation as well as support sound legislation. At some legislative sessions, the opposition to certain legislation may be the major work of the state association. As a matter of fact, from time to time a state association will report as its major achievement during a legislative session the defeat of a particularly dangerous bill.

In most states the even-numbered year is an "off-legislative year." In the first six months of 1958, only 18 state legislatures met in regular sessions. Seven of the 18 also met in special sessions. Ten others met in special sessions only. The 1958 edition of *High Spots* includes legislation reported by 18 of these 28 states. Eleven state education associations reported major legislative achievements, and nine reported major defeats.

## VALUE OF "HIGH SPOTS"

One major value of *High Spots* is its publication in early fall so that it can be in the hands of state education association leaders who are in the midst of plans for the coming legislative sessions. Such a report informs them of the major legislative activity occurring in other states. Often, it is to their advantage to refer to similar legislation enacted in neighboring states when they are supporting such legislation themselves.

For details see *High Spots in State School Legislation Enacted January 1—August 1, 1958*. Research Report 1958-R2. September 1958. 28 p. 25¢.

## 1 NUMBER AND TYPES OF MAJOR LEGISLATIVE ACHIEVEMENTS AND DEFEATS REPORTED BY STATE EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS, 1954-58

| Type of legislation | Achievements | Defeats* |
|---|---|---|
| School finance | 30 | 24 |
| Salaries | 23 | 15 |
| Retirement | 19 | 7 |
| Property assessment and taxation | 9 | 11 |
| Studies | 5 | 1 |
| School construction | 3 | 2 |
| Tenure and contracts | 3 | 1 |
| Certification requirements | 1 | 2 |
| District reorganization | 1 | 1 |
| Pupil transportation | 1 | 1 |
| Other | 8 | 11 |

*State education associations sometimes report as a defeat the enactment of legislation which does not fully achieve the association's goal. This is particularly true in finance and salary legislation.

There are those critics of teachers organizations who maintain that these organizations work only for the welfare of teachers; that is, that their main function is to support such legislation as salary increases. For that reason, it is interesting to note the variety of fields which state associations reported as major legislative achievements in 1958. For example, West Virginia reported as its major achievement a plan for statewide reappraisal of property. New Jersey reported that the appropriation of over $10 million for buildings for higher education was its major achievement. Two states reported as major achievements studies of certain areas of education. One was the study of school finance in Missouri, the other was the appropriation of funds in Kansas for a comprehensive survey of public education from kindergarten through graduate school. Massachusetts reported as its major achievement the defeat of certain proposals to limit the existing financial powers and autonomy of school boards. In the realm of teacher welfare California and Kentucky reported as major achievements the improvement of their respective retirement laws, and Georgia and Maryland reported increases in teachers' salaries.

# 1958-59 SALARY SURVEY IN PROGRESS

## Large urban school systems are reporting modest increases in salary schedules

WAGES and salaries paid to the average American worker have increased every year since 1938, in a long-time upward trend that seems destined to continue. Any group of workers that fails to share in this rising trend in earnings is losing ground in its relative economic position. Relative economic status rises for any group only when its earnings increase at a higher rate than the average for all workers.

Teachers in the past 20 years have also continued to show an annual increase in average earnings. In the 1940's they lagged behind the national trend in their rate of increase. In the 1950's they have advanced somewhat more rapidly than earners in general, but this progress has been made possible only by constant study and great effort.

Boards of education, state legislatures, state and local teachers associations, the National Education Association, and other agencies concerned with educational progress all have helped. One of the services of the NEA in this ongoing campaign to improve the economic status of teachers is its research on salaries. Several continuing studies are going forward.

- *Estimates of School Statistics, 1958-59* (formerly entitled *Advance Estimates of Public Elementary and Secondary Schools*) shows for each *state* the estimated average salaries for all instructional personnel and for classroom teachers. This is an annual study, reported each November.
- *Economic Status of Teachers in 1958-59* will present the current revision of an annual review, published near the first of each calendar year, on trends in earnings of teachers and other occupational groups in relation to costs of living and other economic trends.
- *State Minimum-Salary Laws and Goal Schedules for Teachers, 1958-59* is the latest in a series of studies made biennially, just preceding the opening of the legislative sessions in a majority of states.
- The Biennial Salary Survey presents information on salary schedules and also on median and average salaries actually paid in more than two thousand local urban school systems. The nineteenth Biennial Salary Survey is being made for the school year 1958-59; it will be presented in 13 Research Reports.
- Information on salary *schedules* only, for large urban school districts, is reported annually. In alternate years this information is collected as part of the Biennial Salary Survey. In 1958-59 the first of the projected 13 releases from the Biennial Salary Survey is entitled *Classroom Teacher Salary Schedules, 1958-59, Urban Districts 100,000 and Over in Population* (Research Report 1958-R3, 25¢).

The small price of 25 or 50 cents which is placed on each of the 16 salary reports being prepared for the school year 1958-59 is barely enough to cover the expense of paper, press work, and mailing. The major costs are met from the budget of the Research Division.

As the December NEA RESEARCH BULLETIN is being prepared for publication, only Research Report 1958-R3 has actually been published; the other titles are in various stages of preparation. The final reports of the current Biennial Salary Survey cannot be counted upon for publication until late in the school year 1958-59.

In addition to the above reports, the Research Division also makes a biennial report on salaries in *higher education*.

The latest of these, for 1957-58, appeared as Research Report 1958-R1.

The remaining pages of this article deal with some of the high lights of Research Report 1958-R3.

## LARGE URBAN SYSTEMS

More than a fourth of the nation's public-school teachers are employed in the urban school districts over 100,000 in population. Schedules from 135 districts, more than 85 percent of the total number, came in time to be included in the summary report.

The schedules are classified in two groups, according to the population of the districts:

Group I. Districts 500,000 and over in population (25 districts; all reported).

Group II. Districts 100,000-499,999 in population (135 districts; 110 reported).

The two groups are mentioned by number in the text that follows.

To recognize the rapid growth in population in recent years, the former grouping by the 1950 Census has been changed since last year to a new grouping based on population estimates by the magazine *Sales Management*. A preliminary regrouping has increased the number of Group I districts from 18 to 25, and the number in Group II from 124 to 135.

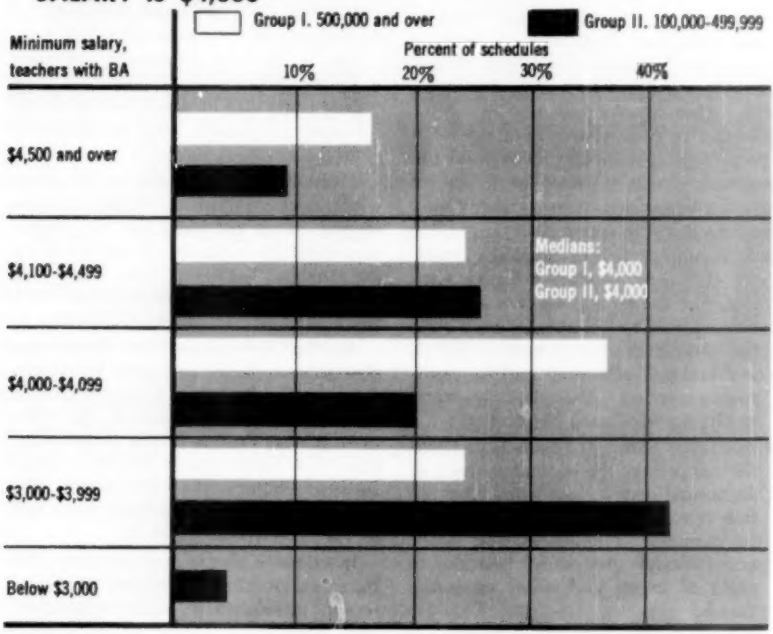
These large school systems, especially those over 500,000 in population, have traditionally paid higher salaries, on the average, than other systems.

This year, however, the medians of beginning salaries are the same in Group I and Group II, and the differences in the medians of maximum salaries are relatively small.

## MINIMUMS AND MAXIMUMS

Medians of the minimum and maximum salaries scheduled in 1958-59 for certain levels of preparation are as follows:

**1 FOR TEACHERS IN LARGE CITIES, THE MEDIAN STARTING SALARY IS $4,000**



| | 25 Group I districts | 110 Group II districts |
|---|---|---|
| Medians of: | | |
| BA minimums | $4,000 | $4,000 |
| MA minimums | 4,250 | 4,200 |
| BA maximums | 6,500 | 6,080 |
| MA maximums | 6,850 | 6,615 |
| Top maximum, highest preparation | 7,200 | 7,000 |

The "median" is the mid-point when all the salaries are ranked in order from highest to lowest. Illustrations 1, 2, and 3 show the wide range in amounts which these medians represent.

Because of the shift in classification from 1957-58 to 1958-59, it is not altogether satisfactory to compare this year's medians with last year's medians. A city-by-city comparison was made, however, of all 25 Group I districts and of 82 Group II districts that reported both in 1957-58 and in 1958-59.

Sixteen of the Group I cities raised the *minimum* salary for teachers with bachelor's degrees, by amounts ranging from $50 to $600. Counting in the nine cities that made no change, the median increase in the minimum salary for the 25 cities was only $150. With a 1958-59 median minimum salary of $4000, it appears that the increase was less than 4 percent. The increase of about $250 at the top *maximum* also figured out to less than 4 percent.

In Group II the increases were at slightly lower rates. A year earlier, the comparable increases over 1956-57 had averaged nearly 6 percent.

The 1957-58 recession was at its worst during the early months of 1958 when schedule revisions for teachers were being considered. Apparently the financial uncertainty of that period had its influence on the decisions made about 1958-59 salary schedules.

## INCREMENTS

The teacher who begins teaching with a bachelor's degree and who stays in the bachelor's-degree salary class until he reaches the maximum will complete this progress with 12 annual increments in salary, according to the typical schedule in the Group I districts. In Group II districts the median is 13 increments. For teachers with master's degrees the median numbers of increments are also 12 and 13.

Although increments of $300 and more are sometimes paid, the median increment step is $200 for both the BA and the MA salary classes in Group I. In Group II districts the median amounts are slightly smaller: $178 for teachers with bachelor's degrees, $185 with master's degrees.

## EXPERIENCE AND PREPARATION

Annual advances with added years of experience, up to a maximum salary, are a part of every salary schedule. For many years the NEA has recommended that a teacher be able to expect, after a reasonable period of acceptable service, to double the starting salary, and that with advanced preparation he should receive still further advances.

Since few schedules even in the past provided maximum salaries that were twice the minimum, there has been need for greater increases, percentwise, in maximum salaries than in minimum salaries. In practice, however, many schedules have been revised by across-the-board increases such as a flat $300 added to all salary steps. The result has been a lower *percent* of increase for experienced teachers than for beginners. The net effect for schedules in general has been to lower the premium placed on experience. There has been a parallel effect of reducing the relative salary value of advanced preparation.

When the medians of minimum and maximum salaries are reduced to index figures, with the median of BA minimums as 100.0 percent, it is seen that the differentials for experience and for preparation are less in 1958-59 than they were in 1948-49.

| | *Median of BA minimums as 100.0 percent* | |
|---|---|---|
| | *1948-49* | *1958-59* |
| *Group I districts* | | |
| Medians of: | | |
| BA minimums | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| MA minimums | 109.8 | 106.3 |
| BA maximums | 174.5 | 162.5 |
| MA maximums | 182.4 | 171.3 |
| Top maximums | ..... | 180.0 |

| | *Median of BA minimums as 100.0 percent* | |
|---|---|---|
| | *1948-49* | *1958-59* |
| *Group II districts* | | |
| Medians of: | | |
| BA minimums | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| MA minimums | 105.6 | 105.0 |
| BA maximums | 163.8 | 152.0 |
| MA maximums | 172.6 | 165.4 |
| Top maximums | | 175.0 |

In Group I cities, for example, the teacher at the top of the MA salary class in 1948-49 was paid 82.4 percent more than the beginner in the BA salary class (on the basis of medians of scheduled amounts). In 1958-59 he is paid only 71.3 percent more than the beginner.

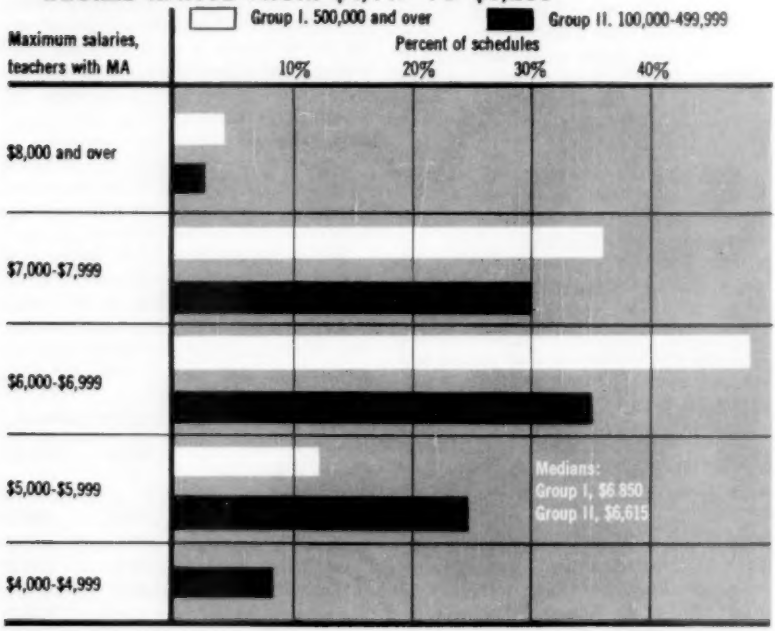
In the past 10 years many schedules have added salary classes to recognize preparation beyond the master's degree. Sixteen of the 25 cities in Group I provide salary classes above the MA; nine stop with the MA. The median of these 25 top maximum salaries, however, is only 80.0 percent above the beginning salary. This is less than the recognition given for the MA in 1948-49.

## PLACEMENT FOR EXPERIENCE

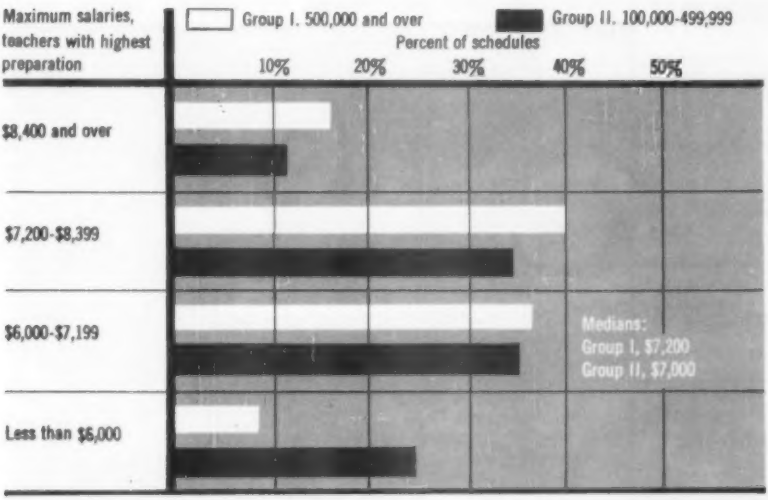
When a school system employs a teacher who has taught elsewhere, the usual practice is to give that teacher some credit on the salary schedule to recognize the previous service. The exact placement may be a matter of negotiation, or it may be a matter of definite policy. Practice seems to be moving in the direction of a definite policy, stated in the schedule. About half of the Group I and II schedules included such a provision.

The maximum placement that could be given to an experienced teacher was recorded for the schedules that included the information. The median practice

**2 MAXIMUM SALARIES FOR TEACHERS WITH MASTER'S DEGREE RANGE FROM $4,117 TO $8,200**



## 3 TOP MAXIMUM SALARIES FOR TEACHERS IN LARGE CITIES RANGE FROM $4,117 TO $9,065




was placement not higher than the sixth step, but the range of practice was considerable.

In salary schedule parlance, a "salary step" represents the amount paid to a teacher in a given year of service. Step 1, for example, is the salary paid to a beginning teacher in his first year of service. He will be on Step 6 when he has completed five years of service and is in his sixth year.

The information for the 12 Group I schedules and the 55 Group II schedules that have explicit provisions on this point may be summarized as follows:

| *Maximum salary placement for experience* | *Group I* | *Group II* |
|---|---|---|
| Below step 5 | 25.0% | 12.7% |
| Step 5 | 16.7 | 14.5 |
| Step 6 | 16.7 | 34.6 |
| Step 7 | 33.3 | 7.3 |
| Step 8 or higher | 8.3 | 30.9 |
| | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| Median | Step 6 | Step 6 |

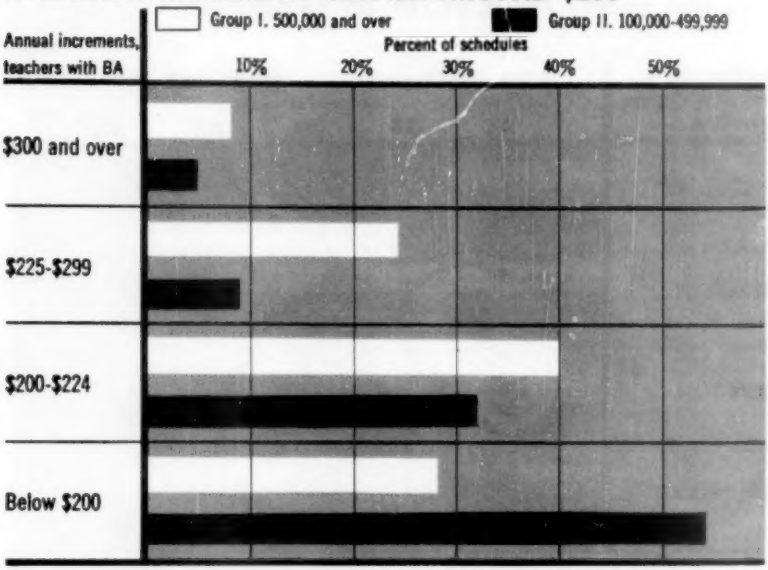
It will be noted that at least a third of the schedules in both groups provided for placement as high as the seventh step, which is equivalent to giving local salary credit for six years of previous service elsewhere.

### HIGH RANKING SALARIES

Questions are often asked about where teachers' salaries are highest. In general, salaries of teachers appear to be higher where incomes of other workers are above average. It is not surprising, then, to see that most of the higher schedules seem to be in California and in the metropolitan area of New York City.

Any listing of the leaders must be incomplete, since some cities with high schedules may be among the 25 Group II school systems that had not reported when this study was closed. Also, a number of prosperous residential suburbs have adopted substantially higher schedules than those in the large cities covered by this report. To give recogni-

## 4 ANNUAL INCREMENTS CLUSTER AROUND $200




tion, however, to certain districts over 100,000 in population which appear to be moving toward professional levels, three lists are given below. They include only unified elementary-secondary school systems and thus omit several high-school districts that pay higher salaries.

*Schedules having $4,600 or more as the beginning salary for teachers with bachelor's degrees:*

| | |
|---|---|
| Alhambra, Calif. | $4,740 |
| Dearborn, Mich. | 4,740 |
| San Francisco, Calif. | 4,670 |
| Long Beach, Calif. | 4,600 |
| Pasadena, Calif. | 4,600 |

*Schedules having $7,700 or more as the maximum salary for teachers with master's degrees:*

| | |
|---|---|
| Newark, N. J. | $8,200 |
| Long Beach, Calif. | 8,125 |
| Dearborn, Mich. | 8,055 |
| New York, N. Y. | 8,000 |
| San Francisco, Calif. | 7,935 |
| Jersey City, N. J. | 7,800 |
| Allentown, Pa. | 7,700 |

*Schedules having $8,500 or more as the top maximum salary (excludes extended-service maximums for long service):*

| | |
|---|---|
| Long Beach, Calif. (7 yrs. college) | $9,065 |
| Pasadena, Calif. (7 yrs. college) | 8,970 |
| Sacramento, Calif. (7 yrs. college) | 8,611 |
| Los Angeles, Calif. (Doctor's degree) | 8,580 |
| San Francisco, Calif. (6 yrs. college) | 8,560 |
| Dearborn, Mich. (Doctor's degree) | 8,555 |
| San Diego, Calif. (7 years college) | 8,500 |
| Newark, N. J. (6 yrs. college) | 8,500 |

Although relatively high as salaries for teachers, the foregoing amounts, particularly the maximum salaries for long experience and high levels of preparation, would seem low as ultimate salary expectations to professional workers in fields other than education.

# MERIT SCHEDULES

## find least favor in largest school systems

MERIT schedules take varying forms. A typical feature is a "superior-service maximum" for which only teachers judged to be superior are eligible. The "average" teacher is paid a lower maximum salary than the "superior" teacher.

Provisions for superior-service maximums are of two general types. Definite amounts and plans of payment may be *specified*. Or the rewards may be only *authorized*, by reserving the right to pay salaries beyond the schedule for superior teaching.

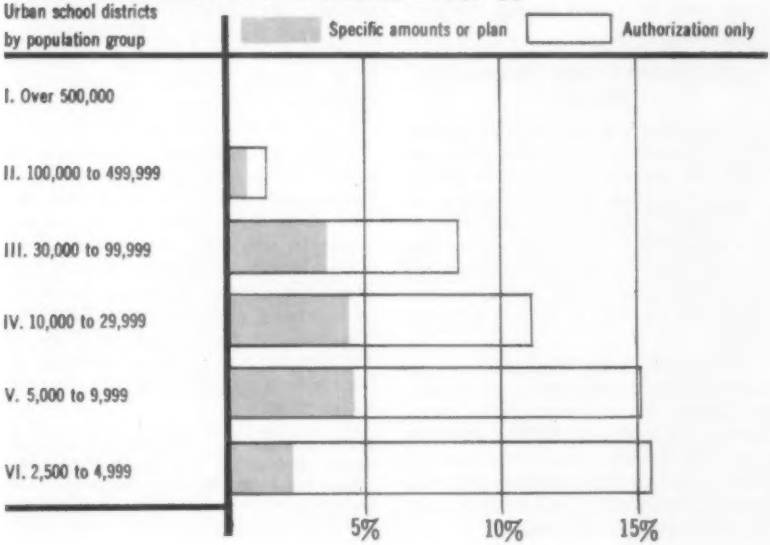
In 1957-58 only a small percent of urban school schedules provided for superior-service maximums. Of 2003 schedules reported last year, 3.6 percent *specified* and 8.4 percent *authorized* a superior-service reward. The total was 12.0 percent.

In the large school districts, superior-service maximums are fewer than they were 20 years ago. In 1938-39, 20.4 percent of the districts over 30,000 in population had these provisions; in 1956-57, 5.0 percent; in 1957-58, 6.8 percent.

Questionnaires on salaries actually paid have shown that only slightly more than half the districts with this type of schedule were really paying superior-service maximums to any teachers.

For further details see Research Division Special Memos, *Quality of Service Recognition in Teachers' Salary Schedules*, July 1956, and *Superior-Service Maximums in Teachers' Salary Schedules, 1956-57*, July 1957, 25¢ per single copy. Report on 1957-58 appears in NEA Research Memo 1958-12. *Superior-Service Maximums in Teachers' Salary Schedules, 1957-58*. Single copy free.

**1 PERCENT OF SCHEDULES HAVING SUPERIOR-SERVICE MAXIMUMS—1957-58**



# Assessment-Sales Ratios

***Assessed values and sales prices for residential real estate are far apart***

THE ASSESSED value of transferred residential nonfarm real estate in the United States was 30.9 percent of the aggregate sales price of this property in 1956. Measurable sales of residential property totaled $8.1 billion. The total assessed value of these properties was $2.5 billion. These amounts excluded sales and assessments of newly constructed houses.

The home that sells at $10,000 but is listed at only $3090 on the tax rolls is typical of the nation as a whole. But among states the differences are wide.

The assessment-sales ratios for 48 states and the District of Columbia are reported in a survey of assessment values and sales prices of real property which was sold during a six-month period in 1956. The geographically weighted average ratio for states ranged from 6.0 percent in South Carolina to 59.9 percent in Rhode Island. Within each state, it is possible that similar wide differences may be found among separate local taxing units.

## ASSESSMENTS AND CHANGING VALUES

Assessments are set at dollar values which in recent years have been far below the current market worth of real estate. In periods of inflated values of real estate, assessments have not increased as fast as the market value. The opposite was the case in former periods of deflated real estate values—assessments did not fall as fast as property values.

Assessments have been slow to respond to the rapid rise in residential real estate values since 1940. Many local tax districts, at their own initiative or at the initiative of a state agency, have been forced to examine the ratio between assessments and current market values for two reasons:

- To eke out additional local revenue from the property tax, and
- To equalize assessments among taxpayers.

## RATIOS, RATES, AND REVENUE

A general increase in the ratio of assessment to sales values may forestall a tax-rate increase. In comparing the burden of the property tax on different taxpayers, the ratio of assessments to current sales prices of real estate is as important as the rate of the tax. Tax rates cannot be compared meaningfully unless the rate of assessment to market value is also known.

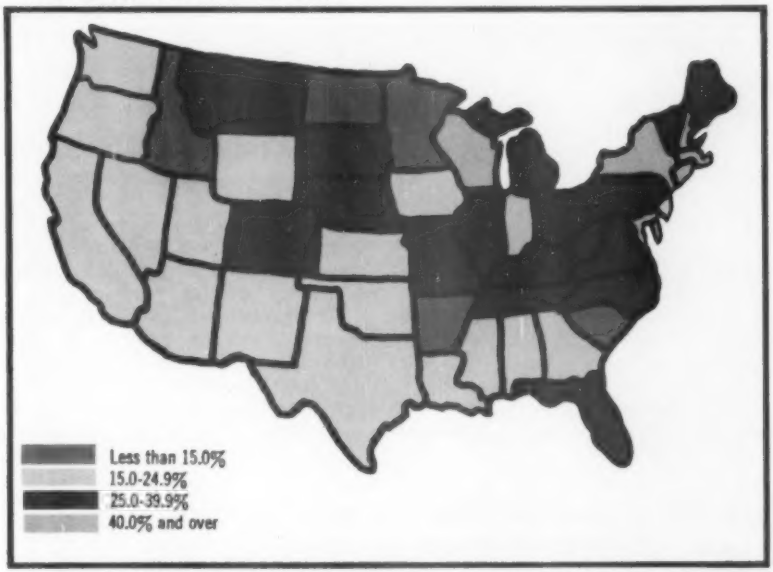
Where two tax districts, A and B, have the same tax rate and about the same total assessed value, the property tax receipts will be the same in both districts. The burden on the taxpayers of the two districts is the same only if both districts assess at the same percent of market worth. If district A assesses property at 25 percent of market worth and district B assesses at 50 percent, the tax burden is twice as great in district B. If district A raises its assessment ratio from 25 to 50 percent, tax revenues double with no change in the tax rate.

When an increase in revenue is needed by a local taxing jurisdiction, the increase can result either from an increase in the tax rate or from an increase in the ratio of assessments to market worth. Currently, many taxing jurisdictions are avoiding rate increases by increasing assessed values. Equalization becomes more important both to the taxpayer and to the government as the amounts collected from the property tax increase.

For details see: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Assessed Values and Sales Prices of Transferred Real Property.* Series G-CGA, No. 7. Washington, D. C.: the Bureau, May 5, 1958. 30 p.

## 1 ASSESSMENT-SALES RATIOS FOR NONFARM RESIDENTIAL REAL ESTATE, 1956

Assessed valuation as a percent of sales prices




Based on: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. "Assessed Values and Sales Prices of Transferred Real Property." Series G-CGA, No. 7. Washington, D.C.: the Bureau, May 5, 1958. 30 p.

Raising the level of assessments is also a way to avoid the effect of stringent limitations on borrowing capacity where these limits are set relative to the dollar value of the assessments. Further borrowing capacity can be realized by raising the assessments of all the properties on the roll to a level more realistic of current market worth.

The assessment-sales ratio study is generally accepted as a feasible way to determine relationship between assessed value and current market worth of real estate. The ratios reported from a study of this type are based only upon the assessed values and prices of property which has been sold within a limited period of time. The transferred properties are considered representative of all properties of the same class on the roll. Forced sales, sales involving relatives, and other sales which are not "free-market" or "arm-length" transactions between the seller and buyer are screened out of the survey. The results of the assessment-sales survey are usually accepted as indicative of the prevailing ratio of assessments to current market worth.

### SCHOOL REVENUES AT STAKE

Residential real estate is about one-half of all locally assessed property both in number of parcels of property and in aggregate assessed value. In most states, the taxes paid by home owners contribute a large share of the revenue used to finance schools.

Tax rates are generally a matter of public record. The ratios of assessments to current market worth are equally important in a determination of the property tax burden on the taxpayer and of the revenue-raising capacity of the property within the school district.

# GROWTH IN SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS

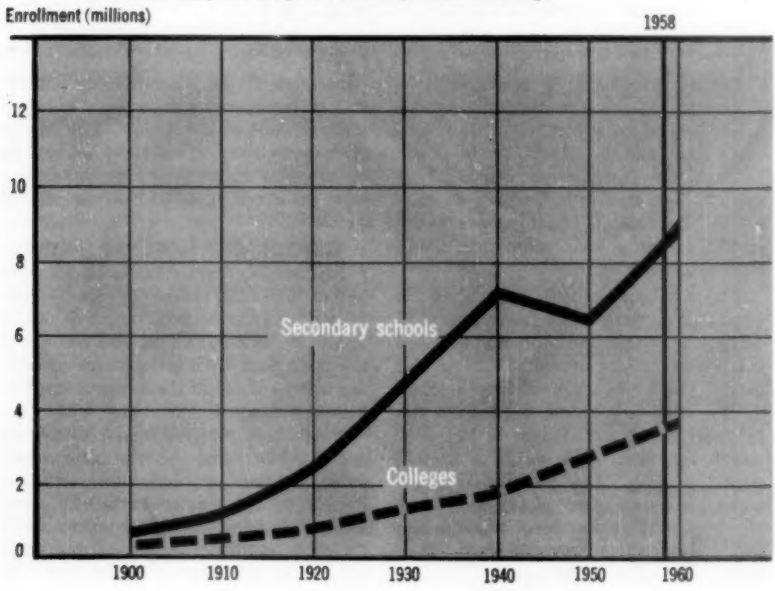
## Enrollments continue to rise—especially in secondary schools and colleges

ALTHOUGH the number of births *per 1000 of population* has generally decreased in the years since 1900, the actual *number* of births each year, except for the depression years, has grown in the same period. The trend has been most pronounced in the years since 1946 during which births have risen from 3.4 million to 4.3 million in 1957. The impact of our growing population has already been felt in the elementary schools and is beginning to affect secondary-school enrollments.

A further measure of the growth of the school-age population is a comparison of the rate of increase in total population with that of school-age population (5-17). The population of the United States (excluding the Armed Forces) has risen 23.7 percent since 1946, while the rise in the school-age population has been 46.3 percent. Projections to 1965 suggest a similar rate of growth.

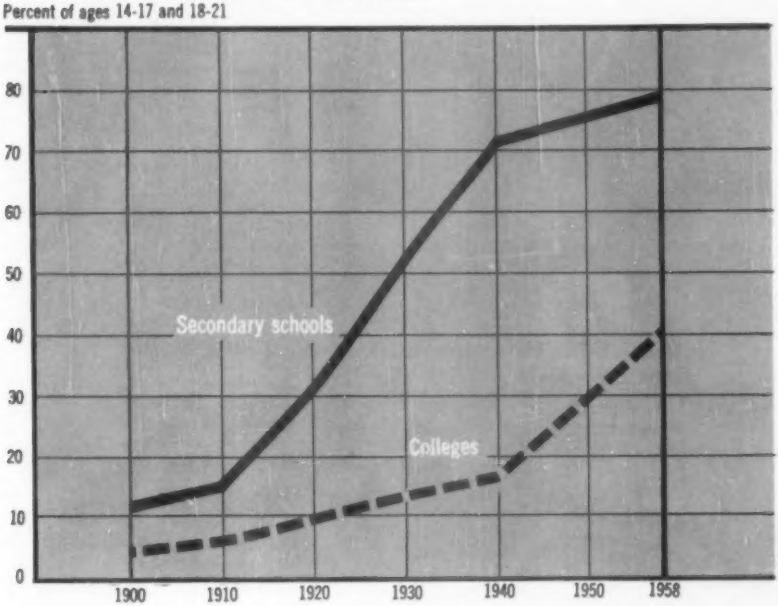
The increase in school-age population is reflected both in private- and in public-school enrollments. As a percentage of total enrollment (elementary, secondary, and college) private-school enrollments have increased from 8.8 percent

### 1 MORE YOUTH ARE GOING TO HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE (ABSOLUTE NUMBERS)



## 2 MORE YOUTH ARE GOING TO HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE (PROPORTIONALLY)

Enrollments as a percent of school-age population




to 16.2 percent since 1900. To date, increases have been greater in private elementary than in private secondary schools.

Enrollments both at the secondary level and in institutions of higher education have increased substantially and will continue to increase. These increases are a reflection of both the increase in births since World War II and the higher proportion of youth enrolling in school.

It has been estimated that total *elementary-school* enrollments will increase by 13.4 percent in the years from 1958 to 1965 as against a gain of 38.1 percent in the period 1950-58. The increase in enrollment at the *secondary* level from 1958 to 1965 is estimated at 47.0 percent. A similar increase is to be expected in college enrollments as increasingly large high-school graduating classes shift to the college level. College enrollments are expected to increase by 40.9 percent over their 1958 level by 1965.

Illustration 1 shows the trend by decades in the total enrollment in secondary schools and colleges and universities from 1900 to 1960. The 1950 "low" in secondary-school enrollment can be attributed largely to the low birth rate during the depression years 1930-40. College enrollments, however, despite the depression and except for a dip during World War II, have continued to climb steadily.

Enrollments as a percent of school-age population are an impressive measure of the increasing growth of our secondary schools and colleges. Illustration 2 indicates that an ever-increasing proportion of the population aged 14-21 is attending secondary schools and colleges.

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